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THE OLDEST AMERICAN AERONAUTICAL MAGAZINE

May 18, 1929

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Industry vs. Government

IT IS BEGINNING to be realized that the act of Congress authorizing the granting of leases to planes and pilots was virtually a declaration of perpetual warfare between the Department of Commerce and the aeronautical industry. It is almost a religious war that is being fought, for both sides claim to be working for the benefit of aviation. The method of solution is different, the Government claiming that it can be accomplished only by regulation, and the industry claiming that it can be accomplished by freedom in the progress of design. The Government tendency, as evinced by the increasing scope and detail of the regulations, is toward complete control of the design requirements of planes, whereas the industry claims that such regulation as there is should come from the industry itself.

There are fundamentally different views and can never be completely reconciled. A never-ending warfare has been started between two opposing principals. This fact might just as well be acknowledged, for then the rules of warfare can be drawn up and the belligerents will feel less hostility toward each other. The situation which led to the Detroit conferences between the Department and the industry should make both parties realize that there is a fundamental difference in the methods by which they hope to achieve greater safety in aircraft. The differences must be fought out between the heads of the government department and the executives of the various companies. The details to be discussed will often be highly technical but the decisions will usually be too important to be decided solely by men who are absorbed in purely engineering problems.



Airport Garages

THERE ARE, as a rule, more automobiles at an airport than there are airplanes. Some belong to employees, some to visitors and others to plane owners or to those who are making a trip over an airline and expect to return to the airport. This latter class often will desire to leave their cars at the airport while they

are away, but they will not want to leave them where they will get covered with dust and out in the open where they may be tampered with during the night. Garage facilities should prove to be an added source of revenue for the flying fields and as the number of private plane owners increases they will prove to be almost a necessity.



Deserved Recognition

THE AMERICAN aircraft industry is divided, in one sense, into three classes—the sheep, the wolves, and the constructive body of the industry.

Perhaps the sheep's class will always exist in every branch of human activity. In aviation this group contributes little to general progress and devotes too much activity to a hurried copy of something which some one else is doing. For example, two years ago the three-place open biplane was popular and many designers attempted to develop an airplane of this sort. Now the three-place closed monoplane has gained public favor and this type is being developed on a wide scale. Such wholesale copying of one another is a vast economic waste and a real detriment to the industry.

The aviation wolves are in attitude, more deploable than an actual action. They are the ones who think it is necessary to other people up the other fellow or he gobbles up and who believe that a good way to advance one's own interest is to knock that which is done by someone else. Obviously this sort of dog-eat-dog competition cannot contribute to the lasting progress of aviation.

Fortunately the industry also includes a constructive group which is proceeding as rapidly as possible to develop new things—new engineering features, new ultra methods, new air services. These people who have something to offer to the public are something to contribute to aviation progress are happy in a majority and are the ones who are the real builders.

There is no room in the aviation industry for sheep and wolves. With so many and problems to solve we must give all recognition and every assistance to the men who mind their own business and work for progress.

THE *Fleet* BIPLANE

(MODELS 1 AND 2)

By LESLIE E. NEVILLE

THE FLEET BIPLANE, which is at present manufactured by the Consolidated Aircraft Corp., Buffalo, N. Y., for Fleet Aircraft, Inc., is a two-place single high-type biplane with a tandem in a single cockpit, and designed for engines in the 40-150 hp range of radial air-cooled types. It was announced originally for the seven-cylinder Warner "Scout" engine which develops 110 hp at 1,850 r.p.m. and more recently has been altered with the five-cylinder Kinner K-5 power plant which is rated 100 hp at 1,850 r.p.m. The Scout-powered plane is designated Fleet Model 1 and the Kinner-powered model, Model 2. Other variations will be offered when thoroughly tested.

The Model 2 has a high speed (sea level) of 113.5 mph at 1,900 r.p.m., a maximum speed of flight of 40 m.p.h., a rate of climb at the ground (full load) of 900 ft. per min. and a ceiling of 16,000 ft. The high speed of the Model 1 is 111 m.p.h.

The weight of the Model 1 empty with wooden propeller and without starter, is 376 lb. The disposable load is 354 lb. and the gross weight is 1,530 lb. The weight of the Model 2 empty, with metal propeller and starter, is 1,022 lb. disposable load 360 lb. and gross weight 1,882 lb. Model 3 is unassembled under approved type certificate No. 122 and Model 2 under approved type certificate No. 121.

The plane has a wing span of 28 ft., a length of

26 ft. 9 in.. The height of the Fleet Biplane is 7 ft. 30 in.

Wings are rectangular in plan form and set at an angle of incidence of 0 deg. for both. The lower wing is set at a dihedral of 4 deg. while the upper wing is flat. The cabin comprises one upper and two lower panels, a center section cut-out being provided in the upper panel to improve visibility and facilitate maintenance. The upper wing has an area of 94.2 sq. ft. and the lower panels each have an area of 47.35 sq. ft. A Clark "Y" airtail section, expanded to 15 percent, is employed.

STRUTS, SEESaws and duralumin alloy ribs are used in the wing structure. The ribs are built of heat-treated duralumin struts, 014 in. in thickness excepting those whose extended cap strips carry the aileron hinges, these being of .045 in. stock. A tapered "I" section is employed in the cap strip while the vertical members are of channel section. The cap strip section is 1 in. in overall width, including the two $\frac{1}{2}$ in. flanges, and $\frac{1}{2}$ in. deep. The channel section is $\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide by $\frac{1}{2}$ in. deep. Duralumin covers $\frac{1}{4}$ in. in diameter are used in fabricating the ribs which weigh approximately 1 lb. per sq. ft. to prevent fabric sag are inserted between the former ribs. General covered such are used to attach all ribs to the top and bottom of the spars. These ribs, directly inside the ribs to the upper and lower cap strips are tied to the spars. In order to avoid the difficult task of carrying the ribs, upper and lower cap strips are made separately and riveted to the 300 duralumin leading edge. Trailing edge, center section cut-out and wing end boxes also are of 300 duralumin, heat-treated. Washdowns are of 065 duralumin and will support a man at the trailing edge with a safety factor of three.



The aluminum alloy used in the wing structure is of high tensile strength and is of the same composition as that used on the first 30 FT models built by the Consolidated Aircraft Corporation and which have been in service for four years. A special heat-treating furnace

is used to anneal and set over the heads of the drag wire fitting bolts.

Each drag fitting is attached to the spar by a single bolt through a duralumin spool inserted in a raised hole, and large duralumin disks (in stock) are placed on the faces of the spars. This makes attachment a rigid assembly and prevents wear from rubbing themselves in the spars.

The main wing fittings are of one-piece design, the single web being under practically no stress. They are bolted to the spars through duralumin spools inserted in raised holes, securing the bearing area in the wood by 150 psi test and eliminating the trouble caused by bolts embedding in the spar. The layout of the position of these bolts is such that the control of the bearing area in the wood conforms with the main center line. This eliminates twisting tendency between the fittings and spar and prevents one bolt from being more than its proper share of the load. This is quite important as a small shift in the location of one bolt will add 25 to 50 per cent to its load and cause premature embedding in the spar.

It is possible to replace either front or rear spar in either upper or lower wing panels without disturbing or losing a single rib or fitting, a point of great advantage in training operations where minor crashes are frequent. Ailerons are provided on lower wing only as the upper wing reaches the battle point 8 deg. earlier than the lower. The aileron structure is of wood, the leading edge is a living of 014 duralumin. Ailerons are braced by locating the hinges behind their leading edges and the hinge fittings on the wing structure are riveted into the ends of the previously mentioned extended cap strips of the ribs. A single long hinge pin is provided for each aileron and is inserted through a hole in the wing end box, engaging all hinges when they are in alignment. The end of the pin is bent forward and fastened to the top box by two screws.

ONE of the most interesting features of the Fleet airplane is the patented aileron control system. The system is extremely simple and consists essentially of a push-pull cable in each wing connected directly to the stick and attached to a lever pivoted to the aileron on an axis inclined in both front and side elevation. Motion of this lever (previously known as the aileron up and down with a differential action. As the operating lever swivels to the aileron is telescoped, assembly of the aileron to the wing is a simple matter. The wing structure is protected by three coats of spar varnish.



A view of the rear of the Fleet Model 1, showing the Kinner engine installation.



A front quarter view of the Warner-powered Fleet Model 1, showing the landing gear and cowling.

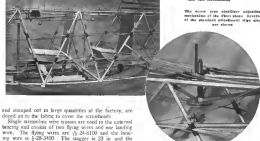
An original feature in the production of the phase is the patented method of attaching the fabric to the wings. Holes 1/8 in. in diameter are punched into the edge strips of the ribs and a tapered and patch and die are run through each, producing bell mouth holes 9/16 in. in diameter. The fabric is then applied to the structure and a 3/4 x 610 in. duralumin washer is laid on the fabric over each hole. Attachment is made by the use of No. 4s in Parker-Kalon steel metal screws, having special heads. These screws, when used in this size and type of hole, will not cause any stress if the fabric is damaged. Ripped fabric patches are laid in diameter

bending of the wingplane struts was observed. Some of the steel load was piled against these struts for the following loads to retard their failure. The struts held a load factor of 11 for about 10 sec. after releasing all jacks before the left wing failed through the buckling of the wingplane struts. Subsequent inspection of wings showed only minor kinkings of tubes. At no flight load of as great intensity last as long as 10 seconds it is assumed that the structure will carry a load of 11 factors under actual flight conditions.

The welded chrome molybdenum steel tube fuselage is designed primarily to protect the occupants in the event

A portion of the structural function of the glider station shows members and fastenings.

The screw type stabilizer adjusting mechanism of the glider station shows also the attachment of the glider to the structure.



and strapped out in large quantities in the factory, are draped on to the fabric to cover the crosshairs.

Single streamline wire trusses are used in the external bracing and consist of two flying wires and one landing wire. The flying wires are 24-28-5100 and the landing wire is 1-28-3400. The stagger is 23 in. and the bracing wires are in the plane determined by the rear upper and front lower spars. The center of the lift line is kept very close to the plane of the vertical strut, resulting in very little torsional stress on the wings and great rigidity. Wing bracing can be corrected to the air by adjustment of the left diagonal center section struts, the adjustment not being located within any reach of the pilot.

LOAD BEARING TESTS with balanced and unbalanced loads, conducted on the wing outline, indicated load factors of four for inverted flight, six for low incidence and 11 for high incidence conditions. In the inverted flight test, sand bags were piled on the upper surface of the wing to a load factor of four and the load was then unbalanced by removing one load factor from the right wing. In the low incidence test, sand bags were piled on the lower surface of the wing to a load factor of six and the load factor was unbalanced by removing 1.5 load factors from the left wing. In the high incidence test, the load was carried to a factor of eight and unbalanced by removing 30 per cent of the load from the left wing. These tests were all successfully carried out without signs of failure though with some permanent deformation.

Loading was resumed after the high incidence unbalanced test and carried to a factor of 10 where some

of a crash and weights 87 lb. The construction is such that the least possible number of members are welded at each joint and the bracing members are so placed that damage is minimized and at replacement determined after careful investigation. Special tubes are incorporated in the structure for no other purpose than to anchor the safety belt transport. A Warren truss is provided in the plane of the front seatback and welded to a cross at the bottom of the structure. Parachute seats are provided and all supporting members are designed to withstand severe impact. The standardized type of detachable clip, used to make attachments to the fuselage structure, has been employed for a number of years by the Consolidated Company. This clip is fitted around the tubes and permits attachment without welding to the structure. Wood furring strips, attached to curved cross members by standard clips, constitute the inside bulk. The engine mount, having a patented three point support for the mounting ring, is designed to eliminate all internal stress due to welding shrinkage. Many failures in multi-engine engine mounts are attributable to these shrinkage stresses. The method of attaching the engine with self-adjusting rope further reduces the initial stresses in the mounting.

A detailed side view of landing gear having a 64 in. tread and also and spring shock absorbers is provided. The landing gear is 45 deg. 20 in. The also cylinder design is such that all oil leaking out of the upper plunger is trapped and fed back into the chamber. If there is no oil, the chamber can be refilled without oil joints. The also sensor has a seven-ton effective stroke at the wheel and the spring action, maintained for landing, has a five-ton effective stroke at the wheel. The also element can be easily detached and filled from the outside and, after being checked, can be disassembled by the removal of one nut.

Also are heat-treated aluminum tubes. The loop joint of the landing gear is so designed that there is no sudden change in section, eliminating the possibility of fatigue failure. Drop tests were conducted on the landing gear with 2000 lb. weight under a 1,600 lb. load and the same landing gear and landing gear was drop tested with 2000 lb. weight. Landing gear attachment struts are drop fasteners welded on in such a manner that they can be replaced at major overhaul without damage to the fuselage structure. The lower wing hinge attachment fittings are also drop fittings and can be replaced at overhaul. Gas turbine engine attachment fittings are of aluminum chrome molybdenum steel.

The tail shaft is also fitted with an also cylinder of the same type as that of the landing gear but having a 10-in. dia. and spring stroke. A quickly detachable emergency steel shaft is furnished and clevises are



The damaged duralumin rib at an angle, showing its strength.

a fitting at the end of the shock absorber plunger. The also is locked in place by a wire. This type of tail shaft has been in low service over from 1940 and has given proof of its efficiency.

Tail wheel struts are built up of chrome molybdenum steel tube spars with that used chassis ribs, sheet steel trailing edges and rubber landing rollers. A special hinge arrangement, which is a development of the hinge used on all Consolidated group PT models, is employed for the struts. A feature of this hinge, which is attached by two bolts, is that it provides that no wear takes place on the elevator or rudder in case these are seriously broken and other steel parts vibrate possible are common placed. Both fuselage and tail surfaces are covered with fabric and depend. The fit is adjustable



Position also showing operation of the glider station mechanism.

on the ground and the stabilizer is adjustable in flight.

Dual control is provided for the stabilizer adjustment which is single self-locking and weatherproof. Removal of a single bolt completely disassembles the control. The control guide just forward of the stabilizer post takes side forces out of the front of the stabilizer eliminating any chance of binding the adjusting screw.

The adjustment mechanism consists essentially of a vertical screw actuated by a drop groove chain drive pulley which is still operated by a 1/2 in. radius splined cable. The cable runs along the left side of the fuselage to a point forward of the cockpit and adjustments are made by pulling the cable in the desired direction. The design of the pulley is such that the cable cannot slip and the arrangement eliminates a number of parts used in the conventional type of stabilizer adjusting mechanism. Its simplicity makes it readily adaptable to production. A report is provided in the fuselage covering the inspection of the stabilizer adjusting mechanism. Simplicity is characteristic of the dual control system. The bolts at the lower end of control rods are ground holes and run in steel bearings. It has been found that bronze bearings are unable to stand the high bearing pressures at a joint in this chamber. All of the bearings in the control system are die cast, oil-free bronze bearings and are designed to a bearing stress of 700 to 800 lb. per sq. in. Stamped brass bearings are used for the internal longer tubes. Push-pull tubes are employed in elevator and rudder control and cables with spring



Set up of the inverted flight stabilizer on the glider station with unbalanced load fuselage and tail.

straps are used for the rubber pedals. The dual controls can be disconnected easily if desired.

Another interesting feature of the system is the dual throttle control which also is placed on the left side of the seats. This consists of a push-pull rod passing through both cockpits and having ball handles in both cockpits. The motion of this rod is transformed into lateral motion to actuate the throttle rod by means of a third member which is pivoted to the forward end at the push-pull rod and attached by a Constancon ball joint to the throttle rod. The push-pull rod passes through holes in the sides of two supporting channel members and is fitted with simple friction clips in each channel which hold it in position elevating the use of a quadrant. Fixed stops are provided on all places after the first twenty-five in which it was found that controlled speeds was of no value. Dual switch and dual shut-off control are provided. Consolidated and Pioneer instruments are furnished in the forward cockpit.

The fuel system consists mainly of the 24 gal gasoline tank which is bolted into the center section of the 2 in. x 0.032 in. copper tube fuel line and the primer and shut-off cock. An Army type C-1 strainer inside with special nose tapered holes to serve both tanks and fitted with a Parlier 1/2 in. drain cock also is included. Parlier fittings are used throughout and several have been designed specially for various purposes. The tank is vented specially for three straps and is fitted with two metal pins to provide gravity feed in all attitudes of flight. An 0.018 in. brass plate fire wall separates the engine from the engine compartment and cooling of 0.032 and 0.035 in. aluminum is used to enclose the compartment. Attached to the firewall is a cylindrical oil tank of 0.018 in. brass plate. The tank has a capacity of 25 gals and a filling mark at two gillows. Equipment includes wooden



Two-Stroke valve timing and simplification of standard clip. Note—In big and deep troughs and method of attachment.

propeller, but a metal adjustable propeller also can be provided. A Heywood air starter can be furnished as optional equipment.

The specifications are furnished by the manufacturer as follows:

Length overall	20 ft. 9 in.
Height overall	7 ft. 10 in.
Span each wing	28 ft.
Chord each wing	3 ft. 9 in.
Artificial section	Clerk A, expanded to 15 per cent
Gap (at C-S)	54 in.
Swings	23 in.
Angle of incidence (Both wings)	0 deg.
Dihedral (Upper)	0 deg.
Dihedral (Lower)	4 deg.
Area of wings, total	194.4 sq. ft.
Area of horizontal tail air	23.4 sq. ft.
Area of vertical tail air	5.9 sq. ft.
Propeller diameter (8 ft. prop.)	10 in., flying position
Weight empty (Model 1)	976 lb.
Desirable load (Model 1)	454 lb.
Gross weight loaded (Model 1)	1,530 lb.
Weight empty (Model 2)	1,022 lb.
Desirable load (Model 2)	560 lb.
Gross weight (Model 2)	1,582 lb.
High speed (full fuel, sea level, Model 1)	111 m. p. h.
High speed (full fuel, sea level, Model 2)	113.5 m. p. h.
Cruising speed	90 m. p. h.
Minimum speed of flight	40 m. p. h.
Climb at sea level	530 ft. per min.
Cooling	16,000 ft.
Gasoline capacity (normal)	24 gal.

The following features on this airplane are either patented or have patents applied for: section control seats, aileron, stabilizer adjusting mechanisms, vent construction, engine mount construction, wing ribs, wing fittings, method of attaching tailer, oleo shock absorber, throttle control, method of adjusting lateral balance, standard clips used in supporting cooling, seat, flooring, etc.

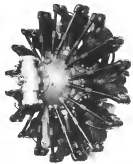


The front view showing one of the first Model 2 showing another one of the standard clip.

THE Series C "WASP" ENGINES

A NEW "WASP" engine embodying several modifications in the design of previous models has been placed in production by the Pratt & Whitney Aircraft Corporation at Hartford, Conn. This engine, which is designated "Series C," has a compressed rating of 425 hp. at 2,000 r.p.m. and a military rating of 450 hp. at 2,100 r.p.m. Guarded and supercharged models as well as the direct drive type are available.

The Series C engine has passed a number of flight and dynamometer tests to the satisfaction of the manufacturer. As a final check an official Silver Victory test was run during which the engine developed an average of 465 hp. at an average speed of 2,080 r.p.m. The average fuel consumption was 0.524 lb. per b.h.p. and the average oil consumption 0.046 lb. per b.h.p. The dry weight of this engine was 584 lb., giving a weight per horsepower of 1.47 lb. Throughout the test no repairs or disassembly inspection were made. The engine was operated at full throttle for the entire period. Power as well as fuel and oil consumption remained practically constant throughout the fifty-hour test. At the conclusion of the test the engine was completely disassembled for inspection. It was found that all parts



improved cooling, the life of the cylinder head, as well as of the exhaust valve, has been considerably lengthened. A change has been made in the design of the exhaust valve which further increases the length of life of these parts. More rigidity has been provided in the crank shaft through a redesign which increases the diameter of the crankpin and the thickness of the crank cheeks. The roller screw design has been changed so that the four bearings supporting it are carried in the roller instead of in the cylinder. This arrangement facilitates the removal of the roller screw and better provides for returning the adjacent to these bearings. On both military and commercial engines a sliding member has been interposed between the crankshaft and the propeller drive to relieve the drive of accelerating and decelerating strains. A forged aluminum nose section is now being used instead of the casting formerly employed. This is positively rated the strength with a little less weight. Steel drive gears have been substituted for duralumin in the magnets and gear drive. This provides for a much longer life for these parts. Reduction in operating cost has been achieved by modification of the master rod



were in excellent condition and that it was only necessary to replace three piston rings and two valve springs to put the engine in first-class condition again. One of the important modifications in the Series C 'Wasp' engine is the improved cylinder head design which involves a new method of fitting. On account of the

bearing which now has a life of from two to three times that of the original type.

The increase in performance is attributed by the manufacturers to the improvement in cylinder cooling. A new type of hot spot combined with a preheated exhaust valve in location and provides the proper distribution in cold weather. Modifications in the exhaustor give much better acceleration.

Among the mechanical improvements is a large oil sump which eliminates any possibility of oil accumulating



The patented oil surface coating with the automatic distributor device.

in the lower cylinders while the plane is at rest. The sump has been made by grinding the top of the push rod by means of a dull bar from a Zerk fitting on the rocker arm side. The intake pipe flanges have been improved by a stiffening bead around the edge. A drain plug has been provided in the sump in front of draining the oil at this point. A steel liner has been placed in the nose section to carry the thrust bearing.

None of the features embodied in the original Wasp models have been discarded. All of these have been retained such as the forged aluminum main crankcase, enclosed valve gear carried in patented integral housings on the cylinder head, non-spark master and dual ducted crankshaft as well as rotary distribution and location of all accessories at the rear of the engine.



The forged aluminum nose section of the new Wasp Model "B" radial six-cylinder engine.



Four-cylinder view of the engine showing accessories.

The supercharged model has the same sea level rating as the unsupercharged radial engine. The supercharger is designed to render the sea level power available up to 5,000 ft. Several patented features are embodied in the geared model which is only slightly heavier than the direct drive type. After a long series of experiments a novel type of two to one reduction gearing has been developed with automatic equalization of the pinions so that each carries its proportion of the load.

Improvements have been made not only in the design of the engine but also in the fabrication and testing of its parts. In an effort to produce high quality equipment, an extremely rapid test and inspection system is employed. A single standard of quality is maintained for both military and commercial products. An engine picked at random out of such lot is given a fifty-hour type test as a check on the fabrication and inspection methods. This insures a thoroughly tested and proven product.

The complete assembly of the new Model "B" Wasp engine.



THE Licensing Section

OF THE AERONAUTICS

BRANCH

By DONALD E. KEYHOLE

A SHORT time ago a man hurried into the Licensing Section of the Department of Commerce at Washington and demanded to see Chief Jesse W. Landford immediately.

"I've been working over two years for the X—Aircraft Engine Co.," he stated, producing supporting evidence. "I've not with them now but I've got a chance at a good job out West. I need a mechanic's license in get it, and I have to start tonight or I'll be too late."

Landford stopped his work and gave the man his personal attention. In a short time the applicant was away with the examination. But when he had finished trouble developed. Before officially completing and marking the papers, Landford saw that the fellow would be too late to pass the exam. His promptly called one of the inspectors, a man with a wide reputation for fairness, and explained the situation.

"I think maybe an oral exam would show that he knows his stuff," said Landford. "At least, in one respect this paper. Will you talk with him?"

The inspector readily assented and came over to quiz the applicant. But the man soon showed that he was not qualified. He knew nothing of adjusting a carburetor, not even on the type of engine with which he had worked. He described a carburetor when asked to explain a diagram. He simply did not know. It appeared that he had worked on assembly of engines, and could by no means be considered an all-around mechanic.

Landford consequently explained the applicant's low-level mechanicals in telling the man he had not passed; the inspector in a friendly way told him the best method to round out his experience in order to be ready for a "make-gooding" job such as he was trying to get. They were really sorry, they had already slightly overruled the job to try to get him by, but, if, of course, they could not turn loose an inexperienced man with Departmental approval.

The applicant was furious. He denounced both men and ended up with a shrill shout the Department:

"I've heard about you people," he said severely, "doing everything you can to keep honest men going by."

He went on out, uttering something about a "batch of semi-fools."

This statement is particularly indicative of a belief held

by too many people in the industry. Applicants who have been released letters, or held up for a time, have sent in red-hot letters, sending telegrams, and have hurled out a host of epithets from the Assistant Secretary down to the mail clerk. They are still doing it—though not quite so loudly as at first.

They complain of "officials' barbed wire," and many sincerely think that the officials of the Licensing Section only their heads with give when they turn a man down. This is ridiculous, of course. Every rejection, or interrupted case means a lot of extra work and overtime, and it is fairly obvious that a straight man must be gladly welcomed. But this is too simple a defense to be well received. Perhaps a brief analysis of the licensing work, with some bare facts instances of "fools," relating both sides, will assist to clear up the misunderstanding.

These are the steps in licensing: 1. The application is received. 2. It is checked as to necessary information, and for possible forms. (Few applications are taken perfect.) 3. It is sent on as soon as a copy of the medical examination is received. (This is a frequent cause of delay, as applicants send in their applications and forget about the physical tests until notified, though this is clearly covered in the regulations.) 4. A card record is made, issues referred to the medical examination. 5. One copy of the application is sent to the inspector by whom the applicant is to be examined. (Here is another difficulty. Often men around constantly. Often the first addition is obsolete in a week or so. The Department sends out the application to an inspector only to learn the next day that the pilot wishes a test in a distant landmark at miles away. Sometimes papers are mailed and remain unused for some time before they finally catch up—because the pilot doesn't plan to take his test at a distant place at a definite time.) 6. After the inspector has found the man and examined him the papers are sent to Washington. 7. If the examination is satisfactory, the license is issued. 8. A record of the license is made in the official ledger and reported publicly. (This last step need not be considered, as it cannot hold up a license in any way.)

Of the seven steps up to the actual licensing, five are directly dependent on the applicant for speed of examination. That is, he can, and often does, make errors in one or more steps which hold up his license for a long time,

If the first application is correct and the medical report a smooch in at the same time or before, there will be little delay in getting the usual record made and the papers sent to the proper superior. The applicant is notified as to the inspector's itinerary so he can choose a meeting place and time. If he connects at the relevant police moment, not more than two weeks should elapse between time of applicant's notification and taking of the tests, even if the inspector is at the most distant point at time of notification. Of course, at flying centers, there is usually a large number waiting, but inspectors expedite the examination as much as they can. If the examination is satisfactory, which certainly depends only on the applicant, the papers will be sent in at once to Washington. There they are reached as quickly as volume of work permits. This last is a significant sentence. During the busy season in flying—from early spring to late summer—the whole Department is swamped, especially the Licensing Section. And there is no remedy, for those who debate in regard to Government personnel and appropriations cannot be asked to furnish adequate personnel even in this mad period. So in that period there will always be a backlog from the time when the papers are sent in by the applicant to the day when the license is mailed. It can't be helped—there just aren't enough people to handle the hundreds of applications that pour in.

But waiting the license does not end all trouble. Because it is a simple work, but it isn't simple at all. Thirty days before a pilot's license is due to be renewed it is notified. The Department is not required to do this, for its data is shown on the face of the license, but hardly any pilot will remember to renew unless warned. The 30 days gives those time to take a medical examination and get a renewal.

PROCESSES for licensing airplanes is about the same as for the pilot, except of course that there is no medical. Complaints are plentiful in this part of the work, too. Not in analysis shows that about 75 per cent of the delays are caused by carelessness on the part of applicants. For instance, a man buys a plane second-hand and wants to use it at once in interstate commerce. He rushes a telegram to the Department. "Wire me temporary license number my Waco bought from John Jones. Sent 1— Airport by tomorrow morning to coast trip already covered for this."

Now the Department cannot take a chance on licensing a plane without establishing ownership, eligibility at place for license, and ownership of owner. If it sent out numbers indiscriminately on such requests it would be easy to steal planes and "lose" without any record. So it waits back (some Government departments would vote).

"Department want have type, serial number, and proof of ownership. See Air Commerce Regulations for details. Letter follows."

The owner is satisfied. His trip is off and he has lost money—all because of a "freaky bunch of red-tape snobs at Washington." He says so, loudly, and his friends agree that he has had a raw deal. It is easy to criticize the Government, and a popular game.

Perhaps the owner takes a chance and flies anyway. If this comes to the attention of an inspector he reports the owner for a violation, and possibly a fine will follow, though more likely a warning. The owner is more resentful than ever—even if he gets off with a warning.

All kinds of odd situations come up in licensing at places. Bill Johnson applies for a license for his plane and an examination an inspector finds the craft satisfactory. Bill gets an identification number, so he can't fly in interstate commerce. He waits till the inspector is gone, paints out the numbers, gets a "green" passport and sells the plane, assuming the buyer that it is a second-hand plane, as good as new, and will be licensed by the Department on application.

After Bill Johnson reaches the new owner finds that his plane is a lemon, and he can't use it as business as he planned. The Department is for suit to tell him, when he applies for a license. And from that time on he feels a strong resentment against the Department because it was the messenger of the bad news.

PLACES Bill Johnson doesn't bother to sell the plane, or maybe he can't find an easy sale. Then he tries another trick. The only difference between an abandoned plane and one temporarily licensed is a metal plate in the cockpit of the licensed one. So Bill simply takes it out and throws it away. From then on he flies the plane as a temporarily licensed plane—legally to be sure, but he has a chance of getting away with it for a while, because of the few inspectors allowed the Department and his habit of being "somewhere else" when they come around.

However, this trick will soon go into the discard. Inspectors are getting to know most of the places in their districts and are on the lookout, and a new system is going into effect, requiring earth in every plane showing the status, whether identified, or temporarily or permanently licensed.

Steals of planes causes one of the greatest difficulties. The owner often wants to report, which is a violation in itself. When he does he has to send the bill of sale, or he has lost it, or never had one. Frequently a conditional bill of sale is sent, in which the original owner holds the title until the last payment is made. The Department cannot accept that, and another money doctor



A view of the tail end of a Ford biplane in operation, showing the license number on the rudder.

A single case shows how complicated the bill-of-sale matter can become. A businessman sold a new surplus plane and it was needed thru taxes which may require being made to the Department. The fifth owner decided he wanted a home, or a management of another. He applied. The Department asked for a bill of sale, expecting one signed by the businessman who had first owned the craft. The bill came up showed the fourth owner, of whom the Department had never heard. So the fifth owner had to start a hunt. He finally found the third owner, and learned to his dismay that he was only started on the deal. He is still looking for the first owner, who seems to have mysteriously disappeared. Perhaps he never owned the plane in the first place—for the Department of Commerce cannot guarantee titles, although it is often asked to do so.

The second, third, and fourth owners at this time stated the regulations, but that does not help that fifth owner in getting a license. The Department is as honest as it can be in this matter. It will accept bills of sale from the current line of former owners, if they have title, and it does its best to get around bad situations. But it has to recognize established principles of equity. No one complains very much if a State Motor Vehicle Commissioner refuses to give a license without an affidavit bill-of-sale, but when as airplane owner is refused for the same reason he bitterly believes he is the victim of persecution. At least, he tells to the Department officials such a state of mind in many cases.

HOMER PLANE PLATES add to the trials of the licensing section. A number of young men have purchased planes of places, often close copies of approved-type aircraft, and have built their own planes. They ask for licenses, stating that their planes are of approved type. Of course they don't get licenses, unless they submit bona fide stress analysis data, or other competent data for this approved-type certificate covers only planes built in the factory for which it was issued. Otherwise such copies of popular planes can't be made and sold in competition with the factory ones, poor material might go into them, and bad methods of construction would constitute a danger to buyers and passengers.

The war-surplus stock goes trouble until a decision was reached. These planes are eligible when of original design and specifications, but any modification, such as the "doped-wing" type, renders the license void. These planes are not to be confused with "approved-type" which are built under Department supervision. The war-surplus plane is subject to a close inspection, and inspection will often up to the wings to determine the state of spars and ribs. This is the only way to find out whether a plane is safe for a public vehicle, but, of course, it is not popular with owners and naturally there are complaints.

But if plane owners protest, their complaints are quelled, at least, by the chance from pilots and mechanics who have been turned down or whose licenses are delayed. At least half of the "stick" come from those who just didn't have the "stiff." Inspectors aren't having runs down necessarily—that doesn't go now, if it ever did, for Director Young has recently ordered them to use common sense, and give applicants the benefit of the doubt if it does not create a danger to the industry and the public. (This subject will be fully treated in a later article on the Inspection Section.)



Neil Cherrin M. Young, director of the Department of Commerce.

When an applicant is rejected, there is little doubt that he deserves it—although he simply was not qualified. But tell the man who left some plane, or dash into the Department wanting one, a second chance at once. At first they complained of "raw deals." What the inspectors had been almost invariably found to be right, the failures shifted their tactics and found excuses ranging from rotten on the day of the test to bad weather. Most of these who hurriedly try for one last before they will get the same question with which they use now. Some even rush over into motor district and apply to a new inspector, curiously relieving from any mention of the first tests.

This steel is not for a while, but the practice increased so much that a case "dead" had to be created to reach these requests. The 30-day interval between examinations is online waived now, and the questions are changed in that time, so that inspectors have been closed. But there is still a steady stream of requests and demands for immediate second tests, backed up by substantial recommendations, and occasionally hints of trouble if the request is not granted.

MAINE or the complaint came from two classes of pilots. The first includes war-surplus pilots who have been out of the game since 1919 and some lack, excepting to be in first-class conditions after a few minutes in the air. When they are turned down because of faulty flying they indignantly point to hundreds of hours in the air. The second group includes new pilots with 10 or 15 of dual instruction at a commercial school and have kept up 200 hr. or more flying passengers at airports. They are fair for straight flying but are not capable in many instances of doing transport work, cross country, and sometimes can't even pass the flight from the "transport" classification of cross country experience.

Of course there are exceptions, and some fine pilots have come out of this class. But many have to be rejected, and they howl loudly at it. Undoubtedly they feel pretty aggrieved, for they have been flying steadily and been in a Department's list to take one of the best of freedom. No respecter wants to do that—get on the other hand those pilots are a menace in the transport game until they acquire some experience. This is one

of the most difficult problems, and it causes a lot of discussion, but as long as passengers' lives are at stake the Department must turn down such pilots.

A few fliers assumed a hard-boiled attitude. One man wrote in and defiantly stated that he did not have to submit any evidence of six hours flying in the 60 days preceding his renewal request. The licensing section simply sent him a copy of the regulations, calling attention to the proper paragraph.

Then came a fiery letter addressed to Assistant Secretary MacCracken, saying, in effect, that some incompetent clerk had refused him and was deliberately trying to keep him from getting a renewal.

A most striking example occurred when a well-known flier requested a license. He made the request orally but on account of certain circumstances the Department went out of its way to rush out an inspector with appropriate blanks ready to give the examination. The flier became greatly offended at the idea that he needed an examination, and said in no uncertain terms that if his reputation was not sufficient for the immediate granting of a license he didn't care for one. He said he had no time to waste in taking any examination, although the licensing section had written off the flight test, which procedure was possible at that time.

A pilot harrasing around the country was recently notified at his last address that his license was due for renewal. No answer. A second notice was sent, and then a new address was given by the Department by someone at the first address. The airmail expiration notice was then mailed to pilot at this new address, as the period was more than up. In a few days a stroke letter came from the pilot, in which he claimed to have requested the Licensing Section weeks before to accept a Canadian medical examination. No such letter had even been answered. He indicated that he considered the expiration notice as an insult and unwilling answer to his request, ignoring the fact that it was not sent until after two attempts to locate him. He continued with a bitter attack on the Department, closing with remarks which are not to be quoted.

IT IS LOGICAL to assume that no request for acceptance of the Canadian examination had even been sent. Even if it had, the fact that the Department had not answered should have stirred him to write again. Had the letter been received, the renewal would have been made, for the Medical Section will cooperate to that extent and more.

The Licensing Section has become accustomed to such letters, of which many are abusive and a few full of threats to have "some check clerk" fired. It might surprise those who complain of ignorant clerks to know that Mr. Lankford and Mr. Paulsen chief and assistant chief of the Section, are polite and well acquainted with flying problems. Moreover, they follow strictly the rule laid down by Director Young. Look at each case through the eyes of the operator or the pilot. Remember, you may be taking bread and butter out of a man's mouth if you proceed him or his plane, keep them flying if you possibly can.

Lack of personnel, small floor space, and minor administrative problems contribute their part to the trouble. But as spite of the rider that still comes in, the Licensing Section has as few complaints—fewer than the other Governmental units. During the summer months, when the Department's buildings are as nearly at fever heat as the aviation industry at that time, the clerks of the



A view of the left wing and tail of a Cessna monoplane illustrating the placing of license numbers.

Licensing Section average four nights a week overtime to get licenses out. And they do not get a nickel extra for it. The Government cannot exempt such operators except in a great emergency. If the laws suddenly became tired of the complaints and went back to standard hours the work would stack up until half the planes would be grounded and probably as many pilots rendered.

One remedy for the difficulty is demoralization. In view of the dismal prospect for some persons, they will undoubtedly occur within a year. That is, there will be three or more licensing offices at strategic points in the United States. In that way, a man in California will not have to wait the long period which is now necessary for mail to go back and forth to Washington.

Also, the requirement for physical examinations every six months may be changed so that on the recommendation of inspectors a pilot's license may be renewed for a year without a medical. Some people think, claiming a pilot ought to be examined frequently, but it is pointed out that an inspector can keep track of a pilot in which pilots may be required, and will undoubtedly note any unusual conditions requiring a physical test when the applicant comes for his renewal recommendation every 6 months. That is, evidence of a dangerous condition. This subject is under discussion, and a decision will probably be made before the end of the year.

All that is indicative of the Department's attitude. It is trying to clear up the difficulties. Complaints from the outside haven't slackened those efforts, for the officials realize that the industry simply does not understand. The man in the licensing service admits that it is human to slack at delays, even though the person complaining may have a good case that he is in the line.

So the Licensing Section is planning ahead—but if a few bugs are winged with the tributes those are the office might labor a little more cheerfully. At least it will save the secretary.

This is the third of a series of six articles prepared by Mr. Klynas working with the Aeronautics Branch, Department of Commerce. The fourth article will appear in an early issue.—Editor.

PROTECTING THE Balloonist FROM LIGHTNING

By WARD T. VAN ORMAN

Balloon Pilot for Condair Tire & Rubber Co.

UNTIL 1923, balloon racing had encountered no serious accidents. Men had flown in balloons for many years without interference from their most deadly foe, lightning, but in 1923, three of the balloons starting in the Juanita Gordon Bennett race from Brussels were struck, with fatal results to two of the six occupants of the balloons.

In 1924, Lieut. James Nisly and Dr. Lerley Messenger sacrificed their lives at Scott Field, Ill., to assure data on storms, with lightning again being responsible. In the 1928 national race at Pittsburgh, Lester Paul Evers, an Army aviator, and Wilbur W. Morton, an aide, were killed, and several others seriously injured.

With the need of protection so obvious, I began work on a device which would satisfactorily protect balloonists from the ravages of lightning, and after nearly a year of experimentation, have perfected a shield.

The problem of protection of the balloonists and the balloon was divided into two phases. The first and most



Above: One of the tests conducted with artificial lightning at the weather laboratory of the Weather Bureau. Left: A diagram of the authors' protective device for balloonists.



important is the protection of the occupants of the basket, and this we have accomplished. In accordance with customary practice, suspension of the basket from the bag is by ropes. A metal lead ring is used instead of a wooden one, however. The new lead ring is constructed of 2 ft. steel tubing, having an outer wall .060 wall gage, and is 30 in. in diameter, slightly larger than the old wooden type.

Extending diagonally across the lead ring are two cross arms of 3/4 in. stainless steel, having a 2 ft. wall gage. From the centers of the cross arms, heavy copper wire is carried, forming a rectangle 12 in. larger than the basket. From this rectangle 12 insulated No. 12 copper wires, 9 ft. in length and equally spaced, drop down

changes of 3,000,000 volts, jumping a distance of 27 ft., are available. This is in reality artificial lightning, and we put the shield through extensive tests. Instruments placed within the basket show that none of the electrical discharges got past the protective shield and we therefore believe the balloonist whose basket is thus equipped as protected from lightning, as lightning is known to select the path of greatest conductivity. Our problem was one of providing a more attractive path for the discharge than that formed by the bodies of the men in the basket.

Experiments have also been conducted with a protective shield for the hydrogen filled envelope itself, and considerable success has been encountered. Small four and seven foot balloons have been subjected to the same severe tests as the basket protective shield, with favorable results, but reports on these experiments will be made at a later date.

Motor Truck ADVERTISING

VERSUS

Airplane ADVERTISING

By WILLIS PARKER

TWO YEARS AGO one of the arguments used in selling airplanes to business houses was the advertising value of such a transportation medium. The businessman was told that people would stare in interest, if not amazement, when his plane passed overhead. His plane should land near a city or town, the newspapers would be led on his feat fearlessly and a free-page story was almost certain. If he or his representative used the plane to call on other businessmen, the very fact that the firm was sufficiently wise awake as to use an airplane in business would make a favorable impression upon them.

Two years ago, these conditions did exist, but with the ever-increasing use of airplanes for pleasure and for business, the public is not so "pop-eyed" when an airplane passes over the community, nor do people rush pell-mell to the curb, pasture, wheat field or landing field adjacent to towns to see the plane that has just landed and gone in wonder at the pilot and passengers. Why, it has gotten so that many people never bother to look up when they hear the hum of an airplane engine overhead. The advertising value of an airplane, so contradicted two years ago, is decreasing rapidly—in fact, in fact, that to get advertising value out of a plane, the

businessman must turn more and more to the advertising methods used in making the motor truck a publicity medium. In fact the same principles apply though in modified forms owing to the difference in position of an airplane in relation to the public compared to the position of a motor truck in relation to the public.

"We have found that in order to attract the attention of the public, we must use a special color scheme on our demonstration," explains one aircraft company sales-manager. "Our standard paint colors—blue and silver—insured no special attention. If you visit any airport in the United States where there are many planes coming in and taking off, you will find that the plane carrying an unusual color scheme will command the attention of all. It is to our advantage, when on a demonstration trip, to command the attention of all of those who happen to be at the airport when we come in. Our demonstrators are painted in such combinations as dark red, fuselage and cream wings, international orange fuselage and silver wings; black and orange.

"What holds true of the airport also holds true when the plane is in the air. It used to be that the hum of an airplane engine over a community caused people to drop their work and stand with heads thrown back to watch the plane as long as it was in sight—five minutes, fifteen, or maybe a half an hour depending upon the noise and workings of the plane in the vicinity. The hum of the engine today does nothing more, in some communities, than cause those who happen to be on the streets to glance quickly upwards, to assure themselves that what they heard actually was an airplane, whereupon they go about their business.

"However, if there is something distinctive about the plane, either in the color scheme or in the presentation of some advertising message, the citizen may give more attention to the plane than the mere single phrase 'aircraft'."

Because the airplane passes over the heads of the citizens of the community at an ele-



Skimming overhead while through a spin, high enough to be seen from the ground, which is needed on the under-side of the wing of this "house" monoplane.



"Steady to the lead thing," the advertising slogan for Maxwell's Motor Coffee, as it appears on the fuselage of this house made plane.



A "house" painted flying Super-Liberator, while its low-flying "house" (house) is on the ground.



The advertised Ford monoplaner, "Big Red," as it appears on the ground.

vation of 3000 ft., as a minimum according to government rules, it is obvious that any advertising messages littered on the wings or the fuselage must be presented in larger letters than the same messages inscribed on a motor truck which passes the citizen just a few feet distant. Also, the environment of the airplane differs considerably from the environment of the motor truck so that when color schemes are considered, the environment in which the plane is flying must be considered.

What and where are best colors for airplane in case the motor desires to be seen from the earth. Blue is another color that is hard to distinguish. Red, orange and black are excellent colors to provide distinctness.

WHAT holds true with the motor airplane is also true in connection with the lettering of messages on the plane. Black on an orange background is much better than white or silver. That is black is read easier on orange background than on white or other bright colors and silver darts the eye by their reflection of the light.

If the message on the plane is to be read at a height of one or two thousand feet the lettering must be at least 20 to 30 in. high. This prohibits the possibility of an extensive advertising message, though there is more space for lettering on an airplane than there is on a motor truck. Most firms who use advertising airplanes to business, such as the Texas Oil Company, the Standard Oil Company of Indiana, the Standard Reading Company, the Texas Pacific Coal and Oil Company, The Royal Typewriter Company, use the corporate trademark as the principal advertising message to be carried by the plane.

Now there are three positions from which the airplane may present its message to the public. We have already mentioned a high position over the city. The second position is stationary at the airport, and the third is in the air lanes.

If the airplane owner feels that he wants to present his message to the people at the airport—strangers and visitors—he may increase the quantity of working in his message. Take the Standard Reading Company, for

example. Besides mentioning the name of reading material, the complete letters on the sides of the fuselage the office in which it has branch offices. Assuming that hundreds of persons may visit the airport while the plane is in town, it is quite likely that the name of the branch office will have a good advertising effect. They can be read by the public while the plane is on the ground—not readily while it is in the air.

As men and more people fly, there will be more and more planes following the regularly established air lanes. An airline's passengers will be increased in any place where these happen to pass. The laws permit planes to pass within 300 ft. of each other, therefore the business houses may well consider the advertising value of messages on the sides of the plane from the standpoint of presentation to the passengers of planes that may pass in the air lanes.

There are three positions on a plane for advertising messages—top, sides and bottom. The wings of planes vary from 25 to 100 ft. in span and from 5 to 10 ft. in width offering plenty of space for big lettering if the message is short. The side of the fuselage runs from 25 to 30 ft. in length and from 4 to 6 ft. in height.

Under the motor truck, it is impractical to get advertising on the front or rear of a plane because of the narrowness of these points. However, many firms and individuals put their plane distinctive names like Lindbergh did his "Spirit of St. Louis" and letter the same across the nose. The Standard Oil Company of Indiana had a plane called "The Standard." It was of two up the nose of the firm and the product with the name of the plane. The Royal Typewriter Company has the "Big Royal." It's not a bad idea to have a distinctive name for one's plane, and, as we have just mentioned, the same may be made to have endless advertising value.



Advertising the 1939-40 products of Texas Pacific Coal and Oil Company in 1000 footings on the wings and fuselage of the house monoplaner.

Planes now styled like motor cars

with finishes of unique durability

Scientific aircraft finishes by du Pont offer ultra-modern beauty combined with unprecedented serviceability



Two Air-Tested Materials
Of Amazing Usefulness For
Cabins and Cockpits

BYOND the first experimental stage—well tested along sound commercial lines—aviation today enters the exciting realm of competition. Comfort, style and durability gain new importance in aircraft construction. Suitable new materials become essential.

To meet these new high standards du Pont Laboratories are constantly developing scientific finishes and fab-

rics of greater beauty, higher durability. Du Pont Wing Dopes, standard Army and Navy finishing materials, and many other du Pont products, were built specially for air service. So thoroughly have they been tested in the laboratory and in greivous flying service, that you can safely have your whole finish inspected on scientific du Pont systems.

Repeat Colors or Color Styling
With the introduction of Duco for use in homes, on automobiles and

other manufactured products, du Pont established a special department for the study of color trends and color fastness. The du Pont Color Advisory Service is in constant touch with scientific styling in both America and Europe. It will gladly cooperate with you in planning up-to-the-minute harmonies for your ships.

Complete information on any du Pont product for a airplane use will be furnished either by mail or by a qualified representative.

EXTREMELY light, ideally shapable, and beautiful in the most modern sense of the word—Pyralin and Fabrikoid are perfectly adapted to air service in though you had designed them in your own laboratories. They add the extra touches of luxury and comfort now essential in constructing planes for private owners. They afford practical advantages of great value in competitive selling.

Du Pont Pyralin in various colors

and often provides 100% strength retention windows, instrument boards and wing lights of suitable strength and lightness for air service. Complete information on Pyralin for these and other uses will be furnished on request.

Du Pont Fabrikoid solves perfectly the problem of upholstery for modern cabins and cockpits. It combines sturdy toughness and ultra-modern beauty. The pattern of the new light-

weight Neomex Acrylic Fabrics completely harmonizes with the buoyancy, luxury and gaiety of the modern mode of travel.

Du Pont technical men are always at your command. Their wide experience should be of most valuable benefit to you. Write to one of the du Pont divisions listed below.

AIR-TESTED FINISHES

Du Pont Dupon—The du Pont line of aircraft finishing materials includes dyes, anti-rusts, primers and polished dopes. They are all tested for maximum durability—proven in service as well as in the laboratory. Flexible and highly blast-resistant, the Army and the Navy have approved these products for their requirements. Available at a wide variety of highly visible colors.

Du Pont Fabrikoid and Pyralin—Du Pont chemists have developed a complete line of gases and vapors including Duponol, Plast, Semi Vapors, Pyralin Vapors and Acrylic Finishes.



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1100 Clinton Ave., Chicago, Ill. 331 California St., San Francisco, Cal.

Plant Point and Vauxhall Limited, Toronto, Ontario, Canada



E. I. DU PONT DE NEMOURS & CO., Inc.

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330 Fifth Avenue, New York City

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AIR-TESTED MATERIALS

Du Pont Fabrikoid—Sturdy Fabrikoid is an ideal material for open cockpit upholstery. With mechanical strength under conditions. Neomex Acrylic Fabrics in new type, lightweight materials developed for modern sense of color design. Made in a high-grade woven cotton base and dyed with appropriate primary colors. Endured in difficult conditions.

Du Pont Pyralin—A strong, durable, light, shapable, transparent material, dyed in any shade from your special in shade approximately 100% in 100% used for most dials, instrument windows, wing lights and other uses.

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The new WACO factory, field and hangar at Troy, Ohio... the finest and best-equipped plant in the country devoted exclusively to the production of commercial aircraft.

Improved facilities for greater values

WACO owes its established reputation to sheer merit alone. It started from scratch. It worked its way, on its own capital, to a leading position in the industry. And today the reputation of WACO takes on a bigger meaning... gives even greater promise. For WACO occupies a new and larger plant... "one of the finest and best-equipped in the industry," according to aviation experts.

Improved facilities for every step in WACO production bring greater values to WACO owners... at consistently lower prices. Rigid adherence to exacting standards of precision and care... that is the secret of the "Invisibles" through which WACO performance is judged supreme... particularly by those who know airplanes and who, by choice, fly WACOs. Complete details and prices on request.

THE ADVANCE AIRCRAFT COMPANY, TROY, OHIO



"ASK ANY PILOT"

Circle 100 for more information



**.32
BULLET**
hits the bullseye
of Popularity

4 PEOPLE and a DOG comfortably seated in a cabin low wing monoplane

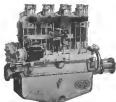
—A snappy take-off—Up into the blue like a homerick slug!—Landing gear completely drops up and most parasite resistance gone—**SPEED, SPEED** and consequent fuel economy—150 m.p.h. with a 165 hp. motor
—The landing gear drops into locked position
—And the BULLET floats into the field so gently the dog stumbers on.

With Wright Whirlwind 165 hp motor the BULLET is priced at \$8,888—with Kinner 160 hp. motor \$6,666. Both prices flyaway factory.

Consult with Alexander Eaglerock Co., Dept. 401, Colorado Springs, Colo.

EAGLEROCK

Circle 101 for more information



Still Another User of U. S. Hammered Aviation Piston Rings:

AMERICAN CIRRUS MARK III

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The Pre-eminent
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Side-Hammered
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THE American Cirrus Mark III, 100 horsepower, which is recognized as one of the most efficient and reliable of low-power aviation engines ever produced, is also standardized with U. S. Hammered Aviation Piston Rings.

This motor very recently went into production in a large way. And already 50 per cent. of this first year's total output on it has been contracted for, with the expectation that the balance will be sold within the next few weeks.

In so standardizing on U. S. Hammered Aviation Piston Rings, American Cirrus Engines, Inc., has squarely lined up with the following aviation engine manufacturers who similarly stand within their sectors:

Aircraft Engines Co., Inc.
Allison Aircraft Co.
Curtis Aeroplane & Motor Co.

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others as to be mentioned
later.

We are solving the aviation piston ring problems of the above manufacturers. We can do the same for you.

"It's a Hammer Ring, We Can Make It."

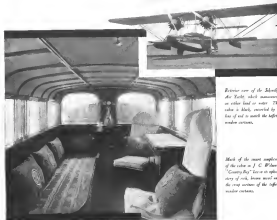
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THANK YOU for mentioning AVIATION



Interior view of the Liberty Air Yacht, which maneuvers on either land or water. The cabin is thick, covered by a line of seat to match the lightest modern cushions.

Most of the most simplicity of the cabin in J. C. Wilson's "Country Boy" is in upholstery of seats, heavy metal and the crisp sections of the lightest modern cushions.

SMART FABRICS

answer the call of the air

UPWARD! In a plane of your own... over to the world — free as a bird in its flight. Today there are hundreds of these private planes with whom as luxurious as a yacht's. Many of them smartly decorated throughout with Schumacher fabrics.

Here we show "Country Boy," J. C. Wilson's Liberty Air Yacht—decorated with Schumacher fabrics. The ceiling is soft, moss-colored Du Pont Fabrics. The couch and pillows, light brown solid bearing the owner's monogram which adds a personal touch to the controls. Windows, curtains of deep red velvet introduce a colorful note. The top of the cabin is covered with plain, heavy grain fabric.

Schumacher presents a wide selection of fabrics especially suitable and graceful for airplane interiors. Smartly simple in design, and of a superb quality that fits them for intensive service.

Once again—day illustrates the slim fitting variety to be found in Schumacher collections which include fabrics for every decorative purpose. Modern designs by the best contemporary artists side by side with reproductions and adaptations from the past.

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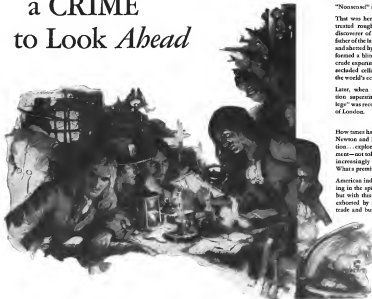
Write for full information and literature.

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Trusted Concrete Steel Co. of Canada, Ltd., Wainwright, Ont.
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When it was a CRIME to Look Ahead



"**NONSENSE!** Stuff and Twaddle!" said Isaac Newton to what 17th Century despots decreed as knowledge.

"Nonsense!" agreed Robert Boyle.

That was heresy . . . and heretics were treated roughly in those days. So the discoverer of the law of gravity and the father of the law of chemical science, aided and abetted by other truth-seeking rebels, formed a blind-pig scientific society. Its crude experiments, secretly conducted in secluded cellars, were destined to start the world's economic advancement.

Later, when it became lawful to question superstitious, this "Invisible College" was recognized as the Royal Society of London.

How times have changed since the day of Newton and Boyle! Research . . . invention . . . exploration . . . industrial advancement—not tolerated, but demanded by an increasingly sophisticated population. What a premium today upon Vision!

American industry right now is pioneering in the spirit of Newton and Boyle—but with this difference: it is aided and abetted by an industrial, engineering, trade and business press whose leadership is needed more than ever. For the stupendous accomplishments of industry have themselves become industry's greatest concern, imposing penalties upon engineers, industrialists and the bands

of business . . . penalties for lack of clear vision . . . penalties for not looking ahead.

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Slots and Spins

Abstracts from a Paper Read by Lieut. Carl Harper, U. S. N., at the S. A. E. Sessions Held During the Detroit Aircraft Show

By LIEUT. CARL HARPER

A **SPIN** is a movement consisting of a combination of roll and yaw, with the longitudinal axis of the airplane inclined steeply downward. The airplane descends in a helix of large pitch and very small radius, the upper side of the airplane being on the inside of the helix, and the angle of attack on the inner wing being sustained at an extremely large value.

In normal flight a roll will cause the tip of the lower wing due to the rotation left from the increased angle of attack. The opposite is true at stall and beyond. Further the vector on the nearly stalled high wing is forward. This causes a yaw which increases the rate of roll.

Disturbances

Mount a wing on an axis along the direction of the wind. Below stall a roll will damp out. Above stall the wing will start to rotate and will keep up this rotation until it reaches a steady state. This rotation has a maximum value about 25 deg. or 30 deg. If it has another rolling action added it will speed up and reach a faster steady state. Above 40 deg. it again becomes stable. However, with zero stagger it may run into a second high rotation rate and stay there up to very large angles.

A plane may fall into a spin after the wings have stalled. This may result from a simple stall or as an accidental stall from an unexpected maneuver. The airplane is ineffective and if it is one of the old conventional type their wing aids the spin when the pilot tries to pick the wing up. An inexperienced pilot may hold the stick back to bring the nose up because the nose is down relative to the horizon although it is up relative

to its flight path. Of course, this keeps the plane in the spin. The decreased velocity of the low wing causes it to lose more lift.

The majority of military and civil airplanes can be forced into various spins. Once in a spin the pilot should immediately push the stick all the way forward as soon as he feels a force tending to keep the stick back. This

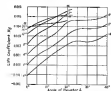


Fig. 1

reversal of stick force is a direct indication of a peculiar or the spin. The rudder should be set opposite to the spin and held there until the plane comes out. This reversing of the controls—stick forward and opposite rudder must be held until rotation ceases. Sometimes a number of turns continue before the plane finally reverses. The rudder must be neutralized and the plane brought out of its dive. Otherwise a stable inverted flight condition or even an inverted spin may result.

Forces Which Keep Plane in Spin

Tests as early as 1917 made on single cambered surfaces showed at 30 deg. incidence that the throw from zero degrees to 30 deg. on a trailing edge flap had little added effect. The lift increase was in the order of 10 per cent. Fig. 1.

Tests made at the Navy Bureau of Aeronautics Wind Tunnel as a conventional surface and director of recent design (double cambered surface) showed at 30 deg. incidence that the throw from zero deg. to 30 deg. as the elevator gives a lift increase in the order of 20 per cent. This same throw at 8 deg. incidence gives an increase of 250 per cent and at 4 deg. incidence an increase of 450 per cent. Fig. 2.

Recent tests on a complete airplane model show that

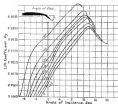


Fig. 2

the roll plane is approaching a stall in the region of 30 deg. incidence for the airplane. A change of 25 deg. in elevator throw gives only a 30 per cent change in pitching moment for the entire model at 30 deg. incidence of the model.

To obtain at 30 deg. incidence the same force as at 10 deg. incidence of the airplane the elevator must be 30 per cent larger and the rudder 50 per cent. This applies to an airplane of the conventional type.

Above 45 deg. incidence a spin may be easily such that the elevators are no longer effective.

The **ice and rudder** are blanketed by the turbulent air. The whole tail is blanketed by and is acting in the disturbed air flow the rapidly rotating wings. The fuselage shields the controls, particularly the ice and rudder at large angles of incidence.

A cylindrical fuselage has considerably less weathercock effect than one with straight sides.

Roll and Yaw

In stalled flight where roll and yaw are present, roll causes an air reaction which increases the rate of roll and yaw. Yaw further increases the rate of roll.

Yaw

Simple yaw experiments in the wind tunnel at high angles of incidence led to air results which may be assumed to obtain for automation at these same angles. Since such comparison will not hold it is necessary to test a model under rotation.

Side Slip

In side slip there is a loss in pitching moment that may be partially accounted for by the fuselage blanketing the horizontal tail surfaces on the inboard side. Wind tunnel tests indicated by a comparison of an airplane model with positive stagger and one with zero stagger that a fuselage with positive stagger will exhibit relative pitching moment similar to a fuselage with zero stagger. This happens when the side slip is as much as 10 deg. or 20 deg. centered. This outward side slip has been observed particularly when the spin is in a direction opposite to the rotation of the propeller. The rolling couple due to side slip helped stall in large and is no

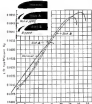


Fig. 3

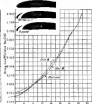


Fig. 4

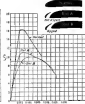


Fig. 5

larger a linear function of any dihedral angle of the wings.

Rotary Couple

In a spin there are dynamic forces present. The largest of these forces is an inertia couple tending to rotate the nose independent of the direction of rotation. This couple is a product of the centrifugal force due to rotation by the moment arm of this force. The inertia couple may be estimated to

$$I \dot{\Omega}^2 \sin 2\alpha \sum (m r^2)$$

It will be noted that this moment increases roughly as the square of the angular velocity of the spin and with incidence up to 45 deg.

In wind tunnel tests and in full scale experiments it has been found that this couple has exceeded the available wing control moments at 30 deg. incidence. A high wing monoplane has particularly large inertia forces.

Gyroscopic Couple

Another dynamic force in a spin is the gyroscopic couple due to the gyroscopic forces of the propeller. This couple may be estimated to

$$I \dot{\Omega} \dot{\alpha} \sin \alpha$$

This couple increases the spin when the spin is in a direction opposite to the rotation of the propeller. Therefore is a left spin on the conventional airplane in this country it is a question whether the signa is of value to help bring the plane out of the spin. The gyroscopic forces may be greater than the added effectiveness of the tail surfaces working in the propeller slipstream. The use of heavy metal propellers with adjustable hubs has increased this gyroscopic force.

α is the angle of incidence at the center of the wing
 $\dot{\Omega}$ is the rate of rotation in radians per second
 $\dot{\alpha}$ is the rate of roll
 I is the moment of inertia of the propeller
 $\sin \alpha$ is the sine of the angle of incidence

Factor in a Spin

The acceleration which holds the pilot in his seat in a spin may become as great as 4g. This value is smaller at fast than slow. The force increases as the

pilot is further from the center of gravity. The lateral acceleration is only a fraction of g .

The vertical drop averages about 300 ft. in one turn. The time of a turn is from one to four seconds. The radius of turn is from a few feet to several times the wing span.

The angular velocity of spin is from one to four radians per second.

Bad Design Features

In 1924 it was recognized abroad that control areas must be increased. This increase in control areas was previously necessitated by the use of higher wing load-



Fig. 8

ings. In this country engineers had more or less followed Navy practice. The Navy used relatively large control surfaces for landplanes over these large control surfaces were necessary whenever flaps were selected for level gear. Also the Navy needed larger con-

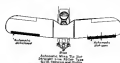


Fig. 9

trol areas for its lower speeded landing speeds. This has delayed somewhat the day of reckoning in this country.

Zero Stagger

A decrease in positive stagger decreases the rolling over pitching moment at high angles of incidence. This is a result of the blanketing effect of the upper wing

Small Gap Chord Ratio

A small gap chord ratio causes interference between the wings with a consequent decrease in the rising over moment at high angles.

Center of Gravity Aft

The center of gravity should never be farther aft than 25 per cent of the mean aerodynamic chord. The forward position of the center of gravity not only aids the pilot in recovery but it helps to decrease the rising up tactics couple.

High Wing Loading

With high wing loading dynamic forces grow into very powerful swells which are difficult to damp out by the use of controls unless this has been provided for in design. It has been suggested that 25 per cent be added to the area of the tail surfaces that have been determined for normal flight, to overcome bad spinning tendencies.

Wing Tapered Tests

The tapered wing tunnel tests of a complete airplane model should be carried up to incidences of 90 deg. The



Fig. 10

model should be tested on a rotating arm to determine its spinning characteristics.

Physiology of the Spa

The lower eye comprises a membranous labyrinth containing a fluid called endolymph. This endolymph is actually set in motion in a spin after three turns and this motion persists after the spin has stopped.

The endolymph impulses are transmitted over the auditory nerve to the brain and then down through the optic nerve to the eye. These impulses drive the eye to one side, a superimposed corrective effort pulls the eye to the opposite side and an oscillation is set up. The effect is such that after a number of turns even though pilot has brought himself out by the use of his controls, the oscillation requires time to dampen out. The pilot's senses will keep him in still spinning, as a result he is apt to over control and fall into a spin in the opposite direction.

The above condition after a few turns does not grow worse with the number of turns. However an equally dangerous effect and one that does grow with the number of turns is vertigo of the brain. The heavy centrifugal force drives the blood from the brain and too

prolonged results in loss of consciousness and unconsciousness. The vessels are affected, in fact some of the abdominal muscles will persist for a couple of days after many prolonged spins are indulged in.

Add to the above the physiological mechanism whereby the forces make the pilot lose consciousness and it is a very real possibility that a pilot is impossible unless there is some sort of way through the bottom of the fuselage. Studies of this nature are now being made. Ten turns have been set as a limit above and below reasonable for a fast spinning airplane. Of course, the pilot changes his accommodation from constant spinning practice and by keeping his eyes centered inside the cockpit. Nevertheless a full scale test is a poor way to try out small changes and their relation to spinning. The wind tunnel should do the work full scale as a final check.

Slats

Several years ago the United States Navy entered into agreements with Handley-Page, Ltd., for the purchase of the rights to use the Handley-Page Slat. Negotiations have been concluded whereby upon the payment of a stipulated royalty the United States Army and Navy install this slot on service airplanes.

The Purpose of the Slot

The nature of wing lift now will be such that most of this lift results from a lowered pressure in the high velocity air where the streamlines are crowded together on the upper surface near the nose of the wing. In a conventional wing section this flow breaks at about 18 deg. incidence, the wing becomes and loses lift and takes on a big increase in drag.

With a wing slot there is housed in the leading edge of the wing a little airfoil so placed that its own air forces cause it to move forward when the incidence of the main wing approaches 18 deg. Through the opening formed between the little wing and the main wing high speed air forces itself over the upper surface of the main wing and delays the turbulences until the wing incidence is nearly double that of normal stall. At the same time the lift per square foot has increased from 60 per cent to 80 per cent.

The secondary effect increases part of this lift and it adds a little ahead of the main wing.

In a briefest consideration the slot allows advantage to

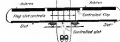


Fig. 11



Fig. 12

be taken of the full lift coming from the high stall angle of the lower wing at the highest combination. Figs. 3, 4, 5.

Types of Slots

Figs. 6, 7, 8, illustrate the link, the roller, and the pin, types of slots. Fig. 9 shows a controlled slot.

Aerodynamic Slots

Aerodynamic slots are used to maintain stability beyond beyond normal stall. This means in control beyond normal stall and the increase in stability is of advantage in leading an aircraft carriers or in restricted areas. In

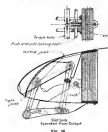


Fig. 13

a forced landing to approach with no engine gravity must furnish the power to overcome the drag at high angles of incidence. For control the pilot must be flying at an angle less than stall still the pilot may turn over and drive toward the ground in a spin. With slots, however, he can be used to some advantage because wheels can be put on the ground early. Since normally the pilot needs only the slats along along along the ground while flying speed is being lost. However also legs should be kept to whatever was over if the landing gear is to be used in such an emergency landing.

Slots can be installed on nonstallable slots is used by the Navy. The slot is therefore able to move his plane over until it has an angle of incidence such that the reaction on the secondary airfoil about the slot and a lever controls the mechanism locking the slots closed. Fig. 10.

Controlled Slots

For the heavier types of Naval airplanes, particularly large bombers, torpedo planes and flying boats, a slot is incorporated along the whole length of the upper wing. Connected to this slot is a trailing edge flap which is pulled down as the slot is opened. The slot is not automatic, but is controlled both in opening and in closing by the pilot. The trailing edge flap as it is pulled down makes a fairing angle of incidence which permits advantage to be taken of the high lift from the slot at a normal landing angle.

For forced control a spoiler has been placed just to

The High Altitude Airplane

The Concluding Article Discussing Engineering Problems in the Design of an Airplane to Navigate in the Stratosphere

By B. V. KORVIN-KROKOVSKY

SO FAR we have investigated the power plant only from the point of view of delivery of full power at all altitudes. Now we will consider the cooling point of view. Almost everything of the heat value of the fuel burned in the cylinders of an engine is to be transmitted to the cooling water, or to the fan of an air-cooled cylinder, and eventually is to be dissipated in the surrounding air. The rate of heat dissipation is a very important factor in the operation of an engine, as the excessive rise of cylinder temperature immediately brings about detonation, with the resulting loss of power, and possibility of mechanical damage. In a water-cooled engine the temperature of the water must remain well below 212 deg. F. at sea level, and is usually maintained between 180 deg. and 180 deg. F. In air-cooled engines the maximum temperature of the cylinder head should not exceed 650 deg. F. for continuous operation.* Dissipation of the heat depends on the difference between the cylinder or radiator and the air temperatures, on the velocity of the cooling air, and on its pressure. All these conditions change with altitude: the lower temperature at high altitudes improves cooling, as also does the increased air speed. The reduction of pressure of the cooling air, i.e., the reduction of weight of the air passing through the radiator or through the fan of an air-cooled cylinder, impairs the cooling, counterbalancing the gain made by the lower temperature and the higher velocity.

It has been shown¹ that the amount of heat transferred from a cylinder to the air stream, in which it is located, can be expressed by the formula:

$$W_e = K L D \alpha \rho v \Delta t / \sqrt{p}$$

where

W_e = the amount of heat transferred in a unit of time

K = a numerical coefficient

L = length of the cylinder

D = diameter of the cylinder

p = average static pressure of the air,

v = air velocity

Δt = temperature difference between the cylinder wall and the air stream

T = average absolute temperature of the surface and ambient air

rate at a given altitude to that at sea level, for the same cylinder, i.e., for the same values of L and D . Denoting by Δt_0 , Δt , Δt_1 , and T_0 the values of these quantities at sea level, we can write

$$(18) \quad \left(\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0}\right)^{1/4} \left(\frac{v}{v_0}\right)^{1/4} \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0} \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{-1/4} = 1$$

As we are considering in this paper flight at a fixed angle of attack, with the speed increasing as the density decreases, we can write

$$\frac{v}{v_0} = \left(\frac{\rho}{\rho_0}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{-1/2}$$

substituting this into equation (18) we get

$$\left(\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0}\right)^{1/4} \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{1/8} \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0} \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{-1/4} = 1$$

for the range of temperatures with which we are concerned the factor $(T/T_0)^{1/8}$ does not deviate from unity by more than three per cent, and therefore can be neglected. Thus we can write finally

$$(19) \quad \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0} = \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{3/8}$$

Before proceeding with comments on what this expression shows in regard to high altitude flying, we will

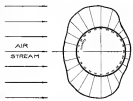


FIG. 6—A diagram showing the distribution of cooling behind an air-cooled engine cylinder

stop to check it against such flight data as available. In the preliminary flight tests of a UO-1 airplane² with Wright Whirlwind engine, equipped with the experimental flame-type pyrometer, the temperature of all cylinders was measured at points on the cylinder heads just back of the front spark plugs. The temperature

* U. S. A. C. Report No. 231

varied somewhat for different cylinders, but the average temperature was about 415 deg. F. at ground level, and 455 deg. F. at the altitude of 20,000 ft. The air temperatures were respectively 75 deg. F. and 50 deg. F. Thus we have from actual observation the ratio

$$\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0} = \frac{405 - 10}{415 - 75} = 1.34$$

In applying the theoretical formula we must remember that in the case of an engine-driven supercharger with exhaust open to reduced air pressure, the power developed in the cylinders and therefore the heat dissipated, is not constant, but increases at the rate of 1.5 per cent per pound of pressure difference between the intake and the exhaust. For this case then expression (19) has to be rewritten as:

$$(20) \quad \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0} = [1 + 0.015(p_0 - p)] \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{3/8}$$

at the altitude of 20,000 ft. we have:

$$p/p_0 = 0.23$$

$$p_0 - p = 34.7/2.18 = 15.9 \text{ lb./sq.in.}$$

$$p_0 - p = 7.95$$

hence:

$$\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0} = 1.108 \times 2.18^{3/8} = 1.34$$

The agreement between theoretical estimate and the results of the test observation is remarkable, and supports only one way of explanation: (19) to give correct values for the turbo-supercharged air-cooled engine.

Assuming expression (19) to be correct, let us consider now what will happen at a high altitude, say 75,000 ft. The ratio of temperature differences between the cylinder wall and the air at that altitude and at ground level will be

$$\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0} = \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{3/8} = 29.2^{3/8} = 2.22$$

We have stated that maximum permissible temperature of the cylinder is 650 deg. F. The temperature of

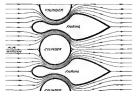


FIG. 7—The arrangement type of cooling in front of the air flow around an air-cooled engine cylinder

the air in the stratosphere is -73 deg. F., hence the maximum permissible temperature difference is 673 deg. F. In order to obtain such a temperature difference at the altitude of 75,000 ft., the temperature difference at ground level should be

$$\Delta t_0 = 673/2.22 = 303 \text{ deg. F.}$$

As the actual temperature difference observed on the

Wright Whirlwind engine installed on the Vought UO-1² was 390 deg. F., it is evident that the cooling efficiency of the installation should be increased at least 15 per cent. This is a comparatively small increase, which can be obtained in a number of different ways. It has been found³ that installation of the oil radiator alone reduces the temperature of the cylinder head by 45 deg. F., or about 12 per cent of the average temperature difference. The reduction of the temperature of incoming mixture by the use of efficient superchargers between the supercharger and the cylinders, is another powerful method of reducing compression temperature, and keeping them below the detonation point.⁴

As a matter of fact cooling of air-cooled engines has been accomplished up to the present time in rather haphazard way, by merely letting the cylinders protrude into the air stream and there is plenty of room for improvement in this field. The latest type of cooling completely encasing the engine, as it was recently fitted by the N.A.C.A. corrects the promise of more efficient cooling at the same time reducing the air resistance. This type of cooling, for instance can be supplemented by a fan, increasing the velocity of the air at the cylinders and thus supplying the additional cooling needed for the high altitude work. Merely exposing the round cylinder to the air stream is not a very efficient way of cooling. The theoretical calculation, as well as the wind tunnel tests show that air velocity on the front side of the cylinder is fairly low, reaches its maximum value on the sides, and quickly diminishes towards the rear, where the mass of the turbulent air following the cylinder is found. Actual measurements of heat flow were made on the cylinder of an air-cooled engine⁵ and showed that rate of cooling follows the same law. The results of these measurements are shown in Fig. 6. It is quite probable that cooling could be substantially improved by fitting some spacers between the cylinders such as shown in Fig. 7, which would make the air flow around the cylinder at a fairly uniform velocity, maintaining this velocity well in the rear. The lack of turbulence and of turbulent resistance will increase the velocity of the air flow, while the uniformity of velocity will insure uniform cooling, with large increase of the total cooling capacity.

The most important part of the power plant, liable to more trouble at a high altitude, is the propeller. The efficiency of the propeller depends mostly on the relation between its pitch and diameter, and there is turn depend on the engine power, on the propeller rpm, on the speed of flight and on the density of the air. We have here four variables, all of which depend on altitude. The average capacity of propellers of altitudes up to about 80,000 ft., will operate in air varying some 25 times in density, yet its propeller must be capable of transforming the engine power into the tractive power at all times. Fortunately, the propeller has been such the subject of intensive theoretical and experimental research from the first days of flying up to the present time, and sufficient information is available for the design of a propeller even for such an odd condition as a high altitude airplane. It has been found that aerodynamic properties of a propeller at any given shape can be completely described by three mutually dependent coefficients: P/D^4 , C_d , and η . The first of these coefficients, the ratio P/D^4 is usually

* U. S. A. C. Report No. 231

² U. S. A. C. Report No. 231, June 5, 1934

³ U. S. A. C. Report No. 231, June 5, 1934

⁴ U. S. A. C. Report No. 231, June 5, 1934

⁵ U. S. A. C. Report No. 231, June 5, 1934

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taken as the independent variable, and the other two are expressed as its functions. Here:

V denotes the speed of flight in ft. per sec.

N denotes propeller revolutions per second.

D denotes propeller diameter in ft.

The second coefficient C is known as the power coefficient, and is determined by equation:

$$(21) \quad P = C \rho V^3 N^3$$

where

P is the engine power in ft.-lb. per sec.

ρ is the air density in slugs per cu ft., or density in lb. per cu ft. divided by the acceleration of gravity.

The coefficient C depends only on the shape of the propeller (not on its size) and on the value of the ratio V/ND . As long as this ratio remains constant, the coefficient C remains constant, no matter how small or how large the propeller.

The third coefficient η is the propeller efficiency, which also depends only on the value of V/ND and on the shape of the propeller, but not on its size. When the propeller or its model is tested in a wind tunnel, the values of C and η are determined and are plotted against V/ND . A large number of different propellers were thus tested by Dr. W. P. Durand in the Leland Stanford, Jr., University, and the results of these tests were published by the N.A.C.A. Fig. 8 was plotted from the data given in one of these reports,¹¹ and shows the variation of the coefficient C with variation of the ratio V/ND for variable pitch propeller No. 96. This propeller was originally designed for the pitch to diameter ratio of 0.7, and then had its blades adjusted from -6 deg. to + (larger pitch) 20 deg. The maximum values of efficiency η , are marked on the curves for different blade settings, and the dotted line drawn through the points of maximum efficiency shows variation of the coefficient C vs. V/ND when the blade angle is kept adjusted to maximum efficiency at all speeds.

Let us consider first the propeller with fixed blades, and let us assume that the coefficient V/ND remains the same at all altitudes. We will denote by P , C , ρ , V and N , the power, power coefficient, the density of the air, the air speed and the r.p.m. at any altitude, and by P_0 , C_0 , ρ_0 , V_0 and N_0 the initial value of these quantities at sea level. Then making use of expression (21), we will write the ratio of the power absorbed by the propeller at any altitude to the power absorbed at sea level as:

$$(22) \quad \frac{P}{P_0} = \frac{C}{C_0} \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^3 \left(\frac{N}{N_0} \right)^3$$

The propeller diameter D remains, of course, the same at all altitudes, and from the assumption of

$$V/ND = V_0/N_0D = \text{const.}$$

it follows that

$$(23) \quad \frac{N}{N_0} = \frac{V}{V_0} = \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^{1/3}$$

If V/ND remains constant, the power coefficient C also remains constant, and the ratio C/C_0 is equal to one—

Taking note of this fact and substituting (23) into (22) we get:

$$\frac{P}{P_0} = \frac{C}{C_0} \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^{3+3} = \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^{6+3}$$

or by comparison with (23) we obtain finally

$$(24) \quad \frac{P}{P_0} = \frac{N}{N_0} = \frac{V}{V_0} = \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^{1/3}$$

The first two members of this equation express the fact that, as the airplane climbs, the engine horsepower remains proportional to the V/ND , which is quite true for a supercharged engine with exhaust-gas-driven superchargers to a certain maximum value of V/ND . The first, third and last members are related with expression (6) for the power required for horizontal flight at any altitude, derived at the beginning of this article. It follows from equation (24) that power delivered by an engine equipped with exhaust-gas-driven superchargers and with fixed blade propeller remains proportional to the power required for flight at any altitude or to the engine power available proportional to V/ND .

The propeller fitted must be large enough to hold the engine to very low V/ND at sea level, up to 400, in

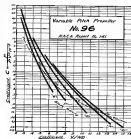


FIG. 8—Variation of the Power Coefficient C with V/ND for a variable pitch propeller

which case there will be a certain small excess of power available over power required for horizontal flight. Let us assume that this excess which can be utilized for the climb is 20 per cent of the power available. As the airplane climbs and the air density decreases, the air speed, engine r.p.m., power available and power required increase in the same proportion, but the excess power has the same relative value of 20 per cent. The second excess will increase and the rate of climb will increase with altitude in inverse proportion to the square root of the air density. At the altitude of about 60,000 ft., where the V/ND is equal to 16, the air speed will be increased four times, and the engine will reach its assumed r.p.m. of 1,600 and its normal horsepower. With

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further climb and increase in r.p.m. the engine torque will begin to diminish, the power no longer will be proportional to r.p.m. and equation (24) will no longer hold. Thus the ceiling of an airplane equipped with a fixed blade propeller will be determined by the engine speed at which the power coefficient is proportional to r.p.m. The necessarily drastic reduction of the r.p.m. at low altitude is a very important drawback of the fixed blade propeller on a high altitude airplane. While the engine is capable of delivering some four times the power needed for horizontal flight at sea level, the propeller holds it at such a low r.p.m. that available excess power is small, and, thus, therefore, in very slow. Any increase of the engine r.p.m. and of the rate of climb at sea level by a corresponding design of the propeller will make it reach its maximum r.p.m. at the lower value of the ratio V/ND , and will result therefore in a lower ceiling.

In the case of a variable pitch propeller the engine r.p.m. can be varied at will of the pilot by varying the propeller pitch, with throttle left wide open. In recognition of such a propeller we must then choose some arbitrary rule for the variation of the r.p.m. with altitude or density. Let us assume the variation according to the following general law:

$$(25) \quad \frac{P}{P_0} = \frac{N}{N_0} = \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^x$$

where we can assign to x any arbitrary value. As the coefficient V/ND varies in this case, the coefficient C will also vary. On the lines of equation (21) we can write:

$$\frac{C}{C_0} = \frac{P}{P_0} \left(\frac{V_0}{V} \right)^3 \left(\frac{N_0}{N} \right)^3$$

or substituting (25) and

$$\frac{P}{P_0} = \frac{N}{N_0} = \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^x$$

we get:

$$(26) \quad \frac{C}{C_0} = \frac{P}{P_0} \left(\frac{V_0}{V} \right)^3 \left(\frac{N_0}{N} \right)^3 = \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^{x+3+3}$$

Now, in the ideal case, we want the r.p.m. to remain constant, and the engine to deliver its full power at all altitudes, i.e., we want x to be equal to zero, as

$$\frac{N}{N_0} = \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^0 = 1 = \text{const.}$$

substituting $x = 0$ in equation (26) we get:

$$\frac{C}{C_0} = \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^{6+3}$$

In the altitude of 60,000 ft., for instance, we would obtain the following relations:

$$\frac{P/P_0}{C/C_0} = \frac{16}{16^{9+3}} = 4$$

$$(V/ND)/(V_0/ND_0) = 4$$

$$C/C_0 = 16^{9+3} = 64$$

The examination of Fig. 8 shows that variation of 64 times in the value of coefficient C is not consistent with variation of five times in the value of the coefficient V/ND . Let us assume that at the highest altitude and maximum speed we have the value of $V/ND = 1.25$. Then with propeller blades adjusted to +20 deg. we will have the coefficient $x = 0.66$, with the propeller working at its best efficiency. At the ground

level we will have the value of $P/ND = 1.25/4 = 0.31$, and we want to have the value of $x = 0.66 \times 64 = 2.84$, while the least value we read on the curves is 33 for the propeller blades set at -6 deg. Such a large discrepancy between the desired and the actual figures shows the impossibility of the original assumption, and we conclude that even with adjustable pitch propeller it will be hardly possible to maintain constant r.p.m. and constant engine power at all altitudes.

Finding it impossible to maintain constant engine r.p.m., we can investigate now the case of varying the pitch so as to allow a certain reduction of r.p.m. at low level, but not such a drastic one as in the case of a fixed pitch propeller. For the fixed pitch propeller we had $x = -1$; for the variable pitch we see from that the case of $x = 0$ is impossible. Let us now assume for x the intermediate value of $-1/2$. Substituting $x = -1/2$ in (26) we get:

$$\frac{C}{C_0} = \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^{11+3}$$

or assuming the same altitude as before, we obtain the following relations:

$$\frac{P/P_0}{C/C_0} = \frac{16}{16^{11+3}} = 4$$

$$N/N_0 = 16^{11+3} = 2.82$$

$$(V/ND)/(V_0/ND_0) = 1.41$$

$$C/C_0 = 2.82$$

If we get at high speed, with propeller blades set at +20 deg., the values corresponding to the best efficiency:

$$\frac{P/ND}{C} = 1.25$$

we will have at ground level:

$$\frac{P/ND}{C} = 1.25/4.41 = 0.89$$

$$C = 0.06 \times 2.82 = 0.17$$

Examination of the curves of Fig. 9 shows that point $(P/ND) = 0.08$, $C = 0.17$ falls right on the curve of +8 deg. blade setting (33 per cent maximum efficiency). This shows that assumed variation of the r.p.m. with the density is satisfactory, and that even with the variable pitch propeller we have to admit considerable reduction of the r.p.m. at low altitude. We have found before that, assuming the engine to spin 1,600 r.p.m. at maximum at the altitude of 60,000 ft., where the ratio $V_0/P_0 = 16$, we get at ground level 1,600/4 = 400 r.p.m. for the fixed pitch propeller, and 1,600/2.82 = 568 r.p.m. for the variable pitch propeller. Even with this reduction of r.p.m. the power delivered by the variable pitch propeller at ground level will be 50 per cent larger than power delivered by a fixed pitch propeller, and much quicker climb can be obtained without sacrifice in the ceiling.

It will be observed that in order to obtain those results the blade setting had to be varied very little—from +8 deg. to +20 deg., and that much better efficiency can be obtained than that shown in Fig. 8 for the propeller represented by Fig. 8 with wide variation of blade settings, and its blades were designed for rather low pitch of 0.7. Its efficiency therefore is much lower than can be expected for a high altitude airplane.

In the above discussion we often mentioned the maximum propeller speed of 1,600 r.p.m., which may appear very low to the reader, as modern aircraft engines are often operated at more than 2,000 r.p.m. These high-speed engines are used at present on airplanes flying at

¹¹ N.A.C.A. Technical Report No. 144.

moderns altitude, where the air density permits use of propellers of a small diameter, so that stresses in blades are kept within reasonable limits, and the tip speed does not exceed the velocity of sound. The neediest air at such a high altitude is 70,000 ft. However, requiring a propeller of much larger diameter, and were the same high rpm. used, the stresses in blades would become excessive. The tip speed at the same rpm would increase in proportion to the diameter, while the allowable speed, which is slightly below velocity of sound, would decrease, so the velocity of sound decreases with altitude. At sea level the velocity of sound is 1,110 ft. per sec., while at the altitude of 36,000 ft. it is only about 770 ft. per sec.¹⁴ The necessity of reducing the tip speed leads to the use of geared engines, and requires the employment of all means for reducing the propeller diameter, such as use of the four-bladed propeller, and of wide blades. It may be noted that at the large value of pitch to diameter ratio, necessitated by the high speed of an airplane at high altitude, this means will have no appreciable effect on the propeller efficiency. To give the reader a more complete idea of the propeller use, we can mention that to absorb 400 hp. at 1,600 r.p.m. at the altitude of 68,000 ft. ($\rho/p = 16$) and at the air speed of 280 m.p.h., the two-bladed propeller must have a diameter of 15 ft., and four-bladed propeller must have a diameter of about 11 ft. The ordinary blade width and shape. The coefficient P/ND for the four-bladed propeller would have a value of about 1.2, and the pitch diameter ratio would be about 1.3.

Summarizing all said above about the propeller for the high altitude airplane we can say:

- It is quite possible to use a fixed pitch propeller, and if used it will operate at a constant value of the ratio P/ND and will give very high efficiency at all altitudes. The propeller rpm and engine power will be proportional to the air speed and the percentage loss in power available at all altitudes will remain the same at all altitudes. At this percentage cannot be made large, without impairing the climbing and the maximum speed, the climb will be necessarily slow.
- Even the use of a variable pitch propeller probably will not permit keeping constant rpm and full engine power at low altitudes. Moreover, the attempt to design a propeller for this purpose will result in a poor shape of blades, and is a greatly reduced efficiency at maximum altitude.
- Such a use of a variable pitch propeller as to allow a constant reduction of rpm at low altitudes, but not use as drastic as in case of a fixed pitch propeller, probably can be considered as the best solution. Varying the rpm with constant engine speed according to the law

$$\frac{P}{N} = \left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)^{1.8}$$

results in the propeller working at its best efficiency at any altitude, gives a narrow range of pitch variation not detrimental to the maximum efficiency, and increases the available power at ground level by about 30 per cent as compared to a fixed pitch propeller.

- In view of the large bending and centrifugal stresses generated in the blades of propellers of large

diameter, and also in view of keeping the tip speed below exceeding the velocity of sound which diminishes with altitude, it will be necessary to use four-bladed propellers, with wide blades, and to use geared, or very low-speed engines.

In the preceding paragraphs we considered the action of the power plant at a high altitude from the points of view of maintenance of full power, proper cooling, and at the action of the propeller. We have shown that the equipment available at present day engines, the supercharger and the compressor could be adapted to work at a very high altitude, and that flying at such an altitude is technically possible. Now we will have to consider the accommodations which will have to be provided in order to enable the human beings to live and act when the surrounding atmosphere has the pressure of some 1/100 of the pressure at the ground, and the temperature at 67 deg. F. below zero. The human beings depend for their life on the oxygen of the air, which is absorbed by the hemoglobin of the blood in the lungs, and is carried by it to all parts of the body. To a certain extent this process is independent of the atmospheric pressure, and men can live at reduced pressures, provided they are supplied with the necessary amount of oxygen. This applies, however, only to a pressure not less than about one-half of the normal atmosphere pressure, or to an altitude not exceeding 35,000 ft. From this pressure on, the capacity of the hemoglobin to combine with oxygen is appreciably affected by the pressure, but as the pressure is reduced to 347 mm. of mercury the hemoglobin begins to hold out oxygen, and at lower pressures its capacity to hold oxygen is considerably reduced.¹⁵ It is a well-known fact that even at such drastic record flights the pilots suffered almost, and often lost consciousness, notwithstanding the supply of oxygen which they carried. It is necessary therefore that an airplane designed to operate at an atmospheric pressure of 1/100 of the normal, be equipped with an air tight cabin, the air pressure inside of which will be maintained at not less than half of the normal ground pressure, and preferably at a normal pressure of 760 mm. of mercury. At first sight it may appear that this would result in excessive weight of the fuselage, but this is not the case, as we shall now demonstrate.

We are faced with the problem of designing a skin made of which there is a pressure of 347 lb. per sq. in. inside and outside of which we can assume an absolute vacuum, in order to be in the safe side. Evidently the skin must be made circular in cross section, like a steel barrel, because in such a case the walls are subjected only to tensile stress, and not to bending as would be the case with a flat wall of a rectangular container. The thickness of the wall of a cylindrical container subjected to an inside pressure can be determined by the formula:

$$t = K \frac{P D}{\sigma}$$

where:

- t —is the thickness of wall in inches
- P —the difference in the pressures inside and outside of the container in pounds per square inch
- D —inside diameter in inches
- σ —tensile strength of the material used for walls in lb. per sq. in.
- K —factor of safety
- σ —efficiency of the riveted joints

We can assume for a five seater 425 hp. airplane the

diameter of the fuselage of six feet or 72 in., the fuselage to be constructed of sheet duralumin of tensile strength $P = 35,000$ lb. per sq. in. The efficiency of triple row rivet joints can be assumed at 80 per cent, and a factor of safety of four will be ample. Substituting these figures in equation (27) we get:

$$t = 4 \times \frac{147 \times 72}{2 \times 0.80 \times 35,000}$$

i.e., a fuselage constructed of No. 18 (10409) B & S. sheet duralumin will have single strength as withstand the required pressure. Evidently this is the pressure would naturally choose from experience for construction of a metal monocoque fuselage for a machine of such size, whether for high altitude work or not and experiences also shows that monocoque fuselages are easily found to be just as light as steel tube ones, and often lighter.

The question of heating the cabin is evidently an elementary one, as there are many materials of light weight and high insulating value which can be used for lining the cabin. As for the use of the crew will have to be the compressor, and fed into the cabin by means of a small compressor, probably of centrifugal type, located far from the fuselage and the purity of the air will be essential. The problem of sleeping and feeding such a compressor is not different from that of the engine superchargers, but is much simpler on account of the small size. A man requires about 300 cu. ft. of fresh air per hour, which would make 1,800 cu. ft. for six men, as compared to about 42,500 cu. ft. per hour consumed by the 425 hp. engine. The power required to compress this small amount of air can be further reduced by letting the used air escape through an air turbine which would drive the compressor. The windmill mounted on the common shaft with the engine and compressor will make up for the loss of power in this cycle of compressing and expanding the same volume of air. This small turbo-compressor therefore will depend for its operation only on the speed of the airplane and will be entirely independent of the power plant.

At the beginning of this article we demonstrated the gain in speed which will be made possible by high altitude flying, and we came to the conclusion that in the present state of aeromarine engineering a gain of 50 per cent is possible. We pointed out that there are many other advantages, besides the high speed of the machine, but we postponed the discussion of these until we proved the possibility of high altitude flying, considering the engineering means at our disposal. Having proved this we can now discuss the other advantages. All these advantages are brought about not by the machine itself but by the surroundings in which it operates, i.e., by the properties of the atmosphere, which we will briefly outline here.

The atmosphere is usually considered as divided in two distinct parts: the troposphere and the stratosphere. The troposphere is the lower part of the atmosphere, up to from 30,000 to 45,000 ft., depending on the time of year and on the latitude. It is thickest in the Winter and is high latitudes, and is thinnest in Summer and at low latitudes. In characteristic property, and the temperature falling continuously with the altitude from some +40 deg. F. at the ground to some 62 deg. F. below zero at its upper limit. Comparatively warm air at its lower

levels holds large amount of moisture, which condenses when overcast currents carry it to the higher and cooler levels, forming clouds and precipitating rain and snow. The lower levels of the troposphere are heated by contact with the earth, and the heating not being uniform, violent convection currents occur giving rise to storms and occasionally tornadoes.

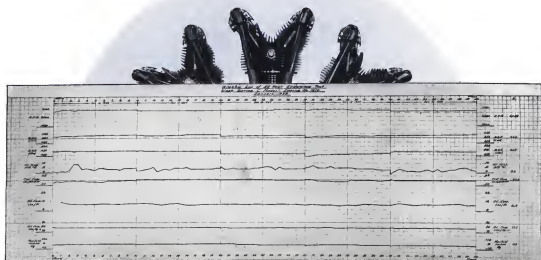
The stratosphere is the upper part of the atmosphere, extending from the upper limit of the troposphere. Its characteristic property is the lack of up and down currents, and approximately uniform temperature averaging 62 deg. F. below zero. On account of the very low temperature the air is very dry, and the lack of convection currents, as well as the uniformity of temperature, result in the complete absence of clouds. The wind velocity may be high but it is very uniform, and is governed by general dynamic laws resulting from the rotation of the earth, and not by accidental causes which make weather variations so uncertain in the troposphere, near the ground.

From the general outline of the structure of the atmosphere it can be seen that flying at a low altitude in the troposphere can be compared to navigation on a stormy sea, while high altitude flying in the stratosphere resembles navigation on a calm lake. Because of the time required for the climb and for descent, and because of the high speed attainable, high altitude flying is more economical for long distance flying. This advantage can be more forcibly stated in comparison with the difficulties experienced by the transatlantic flyers of 1927 and 1928. These difficulties can be classified under four general headings as follows:

- 1—Cruising Wind causing the exhaustion of the fuel supply and preventing landing
- 2—Headwinds and frosts caused by storms, electric storms, fog, rain, snow, and, most dangerous of all, dust
- 3—Difficulties of navigation when the ocean lay presented astronomical navigation, varying winds made dead reckoning unreliable, and roughness of air made all observations difficult and inaccurate
- 4—Foggy landings made suddenly necessary by engine failure.

The first of these difficulties—unassisted cruising winds will be entirely diminished in high altitude flying, because the winds in the stratosphere do not vary so quickly and so often as they do at low altitude. Being governed by general laws rather than by the whims of accidents they will be easily forecast and allowed for in making the flying schedules. Moreover, they probably will be used advantageously to speed the flying schedule, by flying higher or lower, depending on the location of the storm or low wind. Indeed, we will remember that five fastest two-seater high altitude flying, and the appreciation of its possibilities for long distance transportation in this country dates from the early altitude flight of Major Schenck, who observed the storm centers very quickly at a high altitude. Our knowledge as regards the winds in the atmosphere is limited, but there exists some information obtained by means of sounding balloons which shows that there exist several layers of different wind directions and velocity. The observations made at

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